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ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on several models of supervision in public schools with respect to needs in physical education. A literature review examined the traditional, counseling-based, self-analysis, competency-based, and systematic supervision models. Findings include the use of each model and the failure of each in the physical education setting. One systematic tool, the Academic Learning Time-Physical Education (ALT-PE) is presented; it measures the portion of time that a student is involved in motor activity at an appropriate success rate. This tool can best be used within the competency-based supervision system. A second tool, the "Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS)," helps to determine why some teachers are better at effecting student learning than other teachers. This instrument would be best used in clinical supervision and self-analysis models. The study concludes that the systematic supervision model is best for physical education because it combines the best aspects of all the models. Recommendations for the future of physical education in Mississippi are suggested. Appendices provide the two supervision tools (the ALT-PE and the QMTPS). (ND)

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Running Head: Supervision Models

Supervision Models With Respect to Physical Education Needs

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Abstract

Models of supervision in public schools with respect to needs in physical education are discussed. A literature review was performed on the traditional, counseling-based, self-analysis, competency-based, and systematic supervision models. Main findings include the use of each model and its failure in regards to the physical education setting. Recommendations for the future of physical education in Mississippi are suggested.

Supervision Models With Respect to Physical Education Needs

According to Randall (1992, p. 24), "Researchers cannot clearly document that clinical supervision , in the comprehensive format defined originally by Goldhammer and Cogan, is extensively practiced" (p. 24). Others have claimed that the clinical model is "preached" more than it is "practiced" (McFaul & Cooper, 1984). In a study by Cawelti and Reavis (1980), it was found that only 15% of urban teachers had any experience with clinical supervision.

General Clinical Supervision

A number of studies show that teachers and supervisors encourage and push for the principles of clinical supervision. However, although they favor the idea of clinical supervision, the actual implementation continues to fall short of the actual use of the system (Randall, 1992). Goldsberry (1984) stated that extensive inservice training is necessary for supervisors to comprehend the total concepts and principles of clinical supervision. Three major suppositions for the rationale of use of clinical supervision in education are: (a) traditional programs of supervision have failed to impact the quality of teaching, (b) shortcomings in undergraduate preparation have led to weak transfer of training, and (c) beginning teachers as learners have unique needs for supervision (Randall, 1992).

Cogan (1973) divided clinical supervision cycles into 8 phases:

Phase 1- Establishing the teacher-supervisor relationship

Phase 2- Planning objectives to be observed with the teacher

Phase 3- Planning the strategy of the observation

Phase 4- Observing instruction

Phase 5- Analyzing the teaching-learning process

Phase 6- Planning the strategy of the conference

Phase 7- The conference

Phase 8- Renewed planning with the teacher

The process represents a continual agreement to commit resources and time required to the one-on-one interaction of teacher and supervisor. Cogan (1973) rejected the notion of ". . . the naive view of educators about what it really takes to improve teaching" (p. 14). Qualitative designs were added to research on teacher effectiveness during the 1980's. Qualitative designs entail the study of the classroom in its naturalistic setting, allowing the researcher to discover phenomena in the absence of preconceived hypotheses (Randall, 1992).

Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1980) described clinical supervision as "a subset of general supervision, and affirmed the appropriateness of the 'clinic' as the classroom." In expanding the conceptual background, they identified nine characteristics associated with clinical supervision, namely, that clinical supervision:

* serves as a technology for improving instruction;
* acts as a deliberate intervention within the instructional process;
* is goal oriented, combining school and personal growth needs;
* assumes a working relationship between teachers and supervisors;
* requires mutual trust, as reflected in understanding, support, and commitment for growth;
* is systematic, yet requires a flexible and continuously changing methodology;
* creates productive tension for bridging the real-ideal gap;
* assumes the supervisor knows more about instruction and learning than the teachers; and
* requires training for both the supervisor and the teacher.

These characteristics, collectively, describe the clinical aspects of supervision as a teaching aspect.

Failure of Traditional Supervision

According to Alfonso, Firth, & Neville (1984), most supervisors/observers are trained to observe in the regular classroom setting and not in the fundamental principles

that are associated with a given institution (e.g., physical education) setting. Supervisors are typically most effective in the area of management skills (those involving decision making and organizational duties). The second area in which they are effective is human relations (interpersonal) skills. Finally, technical skills, that is, those involving specialized knowledge and abilities in various fields, tend to be the weakest area of development in training.

Locke (1979) made the following observations about the ambiguity of the clinical supervisory role:

> Supervision has several possible purposes. As evaluation it is an ubiquitous process designed to make sure somebody else is doing a good job. As skill development it is helping someone else learn how to do a better job. In education we apply the word as a generic term to cover 1) evaluative inspection of school teachers in order to generate information used in such decisions as hiring, firing, tenure, promotions, and rewards, 2) efforts by administrators and subject matter specialists to improve the instructional effectiveness of teachers, 3) the oversight and tutelage provided by a cooperating practitioner during the apprenticeship of a student teacher, and 4) the visitations of a training program representative during that same exercise. Each of these variations of supervision involves the roles of observer and observed, but the similarity ends there. (p.4)

Supervision has been characterized as "suffering from the same limitations which bedeviled it fifty years ago" (Locke, 1979, p. 3), and as a ". . . ritualized, sterile process that bears little relationship to the learning of youngsters" (Blumberg, 1980, p.5). Research consistently shows that during student teaching the supervisor has virtually no influence on teaching (McIntyre, 1984), but rather the cooperating teacher provides the most important influence (Evans, 1976; Friebus, 1977; Karmos & Jacko, 1977; Seperson & Joyce, 1981).

Traditional programs of supervision generally have been ineffective. This failure is attributed to the static nature of supervisory practices, the ambiguous definitions of supervisory roles, and the lack of comprehensive models for implementing theory into practice (Randall, 1992). The results of these shortcomings is that supervisory programs fail to reinforce the teaching behaviors learned in undergraduate preparation. Thus, what the beginning teacher has practiced, for the previous four or five years, is of no significance unless it is reinforced through competent supervisory methods.

A series of studies conducted by Joyce, Brown, and Peck (1981) and Joyce and Showers (1981) supported the notion that teachers need the opportunity to try out new teaching behaviors before they feel sufficiently comfortable to adopt them. In a similar study, Joyce and Well (1986) noted that:

> . . . teachers could acquire skill by studying the theories of various models of teaching skills, seeing them demonstrated a number of times (fifteen or twenty . . .), and practicing them about a dozen times with carefully articulated feedback. However, as teachers attempted to use approaches new to them they experienced considerable discomfort. Only a small percent (about five or ten percent) of the teachers who had learned teaching strategies new to their repertoires were able to handle the discomfort without assistance. Most teachers never tried an unfamiliar strategy at all unless support personnel were available. (p. 438)

Failures of traditional supervision, shortcomings of undergraduate preparation, and the rigors of transition shock are dynamically interacting factors that lead beginning teachers to reject theory. (Randall, 1992)

Supervision as Counseling

In contrast to traditional supervision, counseling models of supervision share the goals of improved instruction achieved by promoting teacher self-growth and self-knowledge. Counseling techniques engaged in supervision models include Rogerian

therapy (Rogers, 1959,1961), ego-therapy (Hummel, 1962), and Gestalt counseling (Nisenholz & McCarty, 1976). Dussault (1970) proposed that the supervisory conference in Rogerian theory should emphasize the development of congruence, empathy, and reciprocal positive regard. It went on to state that there were basic principles needed to establish changes in the personalities, and, ultimately, the behaviors of supervisees. Gestalt counseling assumes that student teachers should be treated as individual, adult learners who are capable of learning from their experiences (Nesenholz and McCarty, 1976). Gestalt counseling helps the supervisees develop awareness of their own behavior patterns and assume responsibility for their own solutions. Blumberg (1977) stated that research findings indicate that when the counseling supervision model is used, teachers are more satisfied with and derive greater growth from the process. Ego-therapy, a third counseling technique, extends the psychoanalytic theories of Freud by considering the environmental influences of behavior (George & Cristiani, 1986). Ego-therapy entails a collaborative relationship between supervisor and supervisee, with an emphasis on identifying defense mechanisms and coping positively with the school environment and personal needs (Randall, 1992).

Failures of Counseling-Based Supervision Models

Upon reviewing literature on the application of counseling models to supervision, Randall (1992) commented, "With the exception of sensitizing the supervisor to the importance of interpersonal skills, the previously described literature does little to provide a clear, working model for the application of counseling models of supervision" (p. 24). These models give "lip service" to, but have little lasting significance toward the goal of educational supervision.

Blumberg (1977) stated that the supervisor involved with counseling-based models was a "interpersonal interventionist." With the supervisor having to become knowledgeable in the practices of counseling, much time in studying these methods or perhaps a degree in counseling would be necessary for the supervisor to adequately

perform this model. In more recent years, students pursuing a master's degree in physical education have been required, as part of the degree program, to take a sport psychology course, but this one course does not prepare the physical educator, in any capacity, to be trained in the counseling model of supervision. Some schools have doctorate trained supervisors, but even on the Ph D. level, physical educators are not typically trained in the use or theory behind the counseling-based supervision model.

Peer Supervision

The peer supervision model attenuates the conception of human growth by removing the hierarchical association, resulting in, as Randall (1992) stated " is a new definition of collegiality". This approach seeks to overcome the barriers of isolation imposed by the school environment, allowing teachers to experience the whole class environment (Bang-Jensen, 1986). To successfully implement peer supervision in any form, the educator must overcome the physical barriers of the classroom and the lack of interaction with other educators. Physical fragmentation may be more unproductive at the secondary level, where the departmental structure is more delineated (Randall, 1992). Another obstacle to overcome is the nature of teacher interaction within schools (Randall, 1992).

Failure of Peer Supervision

It is safe to conclude that peer supervision as an adjunct to formal supervision can make valuable contributions to the overall process. Research indicates that peer evaluation lacks sufficient reliability for use as a summative evaluation and is subject to a positive bias that further contributes to this lack of reliability (French-Lazovik, 1981). Thus, peer supervision might be best directed at formative evaluation efforts as opposed to summative evaluation.

Self-Analysis in Supervision

Self-analysis is a form of increased autonomy in supervision. If we accept the notion that teachers are capable of independent learning and best commit themselves to

improved teaching when they make decisions independently, then the concept of self-analysis is worthy of investigation. Proponents of self-analysis believe that people learn best by thoughtful analysis of their own behaviors, and that self-initiated changes are most likely to succeed (Randall, 1992).

Failure of Self-Analysis in Supervision

Self-analysis remains a relatively unexplored model of supervision. Teachers are encouraged to evaluate themselves in hopes of improvement to teaching. Teachers must be trained in the basics of teaching models and be able to observe "master teachers" before they can have any basis of self-evaluation of their teaching style. Teachers also would need to have a sound grip on the learning styles of students.

In recent years "journaling" has become a novel idea. Journaling involves teachers keeping a record of events that occur throughout the day. They are required to detail events of interest, problems encountered during teaching lesson objectives, and possible solutions to problem areas. This sounds like a good method, but in physical education, teachers may have 60 students every 30 minutes for the morning, have 40 students for 50 minutes in three afternoon classes, and then coach a sport after school (which involves practice or games in which the teacher may not leave the school until midnight). With the time requirements on physical educators, recording of daily events is almost impossible. The literature so far supports its utility as a further adjunct to formal supervision (Randall, 1992), but the reality of job responsibilities makes it an implausible option in physical education.

Competency-Based Supervision

The previously described models of supervision (clinical, counseling, peer, and self-analysis) are similar in nature: the teacher is the immediate locus of observation. Supervisory efficiency is assessed by its ability to demonstrate changes in the conduct or affective attributes of teachers. In contrast to other models of supervision is the competency-based or performance-based model. It employs as its dimension, observable

changes in teacher behavior and student performance. This model is connected to social theory and behavioral psychology. The emphasis is on performance assessment and was created chiefly by two cultural tendencies of the 1970's: accountability and personalization. (Houston, 1974)

Failure of Competency-Based Supervision

In 1971, McNeil proposed that the inadequacy of the research base in teacher effectiveness needed to be looked at from a different angle than from the generic definition of competency-based education. The researcher stated ". . . it is even doubtful that there exists a single variable of instruction that applies to all teaching for all pupils, in all subject matter and for all objectives" (p. 25).

Houston (1974) suggested that "the more a person is proficient as a teacher, the more likely his or her professional style is to be unique." In physical education, the teacher teaches primarily as the situation occurs. This is not to say that planning and preparation are not involved, but physical education has been considered an "optional" subject. Teachers of physical education are master of illusion and utilizers of space, especially when involved with large numbers of students in classes. Therefore, physical educators are more likely than other teachers to have unique teaching styles. Supervisors, which are not likely from a physical education background, may have a difficult time evaluating the competency of the teacher. Student learning and teacher effectiveness can be achieved with this model, but much preplanning and communication, between the supervisor and physical educator, will be necessary.

Systematic Supervision Model

The Systematic Supervision Model developed by Randall and students at Florida State University in 1991 was initially intended to facilitate the progress of student teachers in physical education. The thrust for the model came from Randall's experience supervising student teachers for 10 years. Based on this experience, Randall identified a need to provide systematic reinforcement for student teachers and to provide beginning

teachers a planned sequence of progressions for applying what had been learned in the undergraduate program. With systematic supervision, reinforcement of desired teaching behaviors, defined in objective and observable form, are observed.

This model, according to Randall (1992), is "... eclectic in the sense that it derives its components from a wide variety of theoretical and empirical approaches to effective teaching" (p. 3). The rationale for systematic supervision is based upon the following beliefs:

* Traditional programs of supervision have failed to significantly impact the quality of teaching.
* Supervisory programs do not typically reinforce, in any systematic manner, the teaching behaviors that student teachers learn in undergraduate preparation.
* Undergraduate professional preparation programs, generally comprise a weak treatment (Locke, 1983), in that their effects are quickly washed out by school experiences (Zeichner & Tabachnik, 1981).
* The low impact of undergraduate teacher preparation, combined with the lack of substantive supervision, contributes to the "rejection" theory by novice teachers and the widening of the theory/practice gap.
* Beginning teachers face a variety of unique conditions that can lead to "transition shock" (Corcoran, 1981). Systematic supervision can help alleviate some of the anxiety that results from this transition by providing an element of structure.

Failure of Systematic Supervision

According to Randall (1992), there are several potential problems with the systematic system of supervision. One of those areas is in the proper placement of supervisors in general. Many times untrained or undertrained teachers are placed in the supervisory role. Some may lack classroom experience or the supervisor may be an older

teacher who has lost the "excitement" of teaching. In some schools the supervisory role may rest upon the newly hired curriculum director or overworked principal or superintendent.

Another problem that Randall mentioned was with the seriousness of the school towards supervision of its own teachers. Some schools place a lot of emphasis on the supervision of teachers. Many states have mandates that schools must follow, whereas, others have no systematic method for evaluating the teaching effectiveness of teachers in their schools. Systematic supervision covers the psychomotor, cognitive, and affective areas in physical education. It places demands on the teachers, especially first year teachers, to teach planned sequences of events that lead to effective and appropriate student performance.

Supervisory Tools in Physical Education

In the past 25 to 45 years, abundant information about the concepts of supervisory instruments for physical education have begun to emerge. Gage's Handbook of Research in Teaching (1963), sparked an intense interest in research on the teaching of physical education. Physical education studies have tended to follow trends that focus primarily on process-product designs. These help to determine the relationship between teaching processes, teachers methods, and student outcomes, measured by performance (Randall, 1992). In physical education, the processing and acquisition of psychomotor skills are the student outcomes that indicate if learning has taken place.

In 1979, Siedentop and graduate students at Ohio State University developed an application to determine the effect of time spent on academic learning. Their systematic tool was the Academic Learning Time-Physical Education (ALT-PE) which measures the portion of time that a student is involved in motor activity at an appropriate success rate (Metzler, 1979; Siedentop, Birdwell, & Metzler, 1979; Siedentop, Tousignant, & Parker, 1982). This instrument (see Appendix A) is capable of describing not only the type of motor activity (e.g., skill practice, scrimmage, game fitness) in which selected students are

involved, but also the general context of the subject matter in which the total class is involved.

There are several limitations to ALT-PE:

* ALT-PE is a time-based concept that commonly uses interval recording techniques (Siedentop, 1983).
* ALT-PE is not sensitive to differences among motor-performances in various physical education activities. Even with the game setting, ALT-PE does not delineate what players are doing.
* ALT-PE provides a picture of only a small portion of what happens in physical education.
* ALT-PE does not measure the congruence between learner needs and content goal (Rink & Werner, 1985).
* ALT-PE does not indicate the quality of the practice. Success rate may not be a discriminating variable (Parker, 1986).

Considering these limitations, this observation tool can best be utilized within the competency-based supervision system. This tool can measure both student and teacher learning.

The Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS), developed by Werner and Rink (1986) is used to describe qualitative aspects of teacher process characteristics. This scale helps to determine why some teachers are better at effecting student learning than other teachers. The QMTPS (see Appendix B) is divided into four categories: type of task, task presentation, student response appropriate to task focus, and specific congruent feedback. QMTPS has the following limitations:

* The QMTPS is related to but is not a direct measure of effective teaching.
* The QMTPS was originally designed to assist researchers in gaining more qualitative insight as to how more effective teachers differed from less qualified teachers.

* Effective teaching goes beyond the constructs of academic learning time, number of practice trials, content development, and management skills of the teacher.

Therefore, QMTPS can only be looked at as one tool that can yield insight into the complete picture of the link between teaching and learning. This instrument of observation would be best used within the clinical supervision and self-analysis models of supervision. The observer can watch the teacher in person during a planned observation meeting, and through videotaping, the teacher can review and record the times and incident rates to perform a self-analysis.

Conclusion

By exploring the different types of supervision, one can better understand the methods and sequencing of a specific supervision method. Administrators, supervisors, observers, and teachers need to be aware of the different supervision models that are available. Clinical supervision is the most talked about model and is discussed as being good in and of itself, but perhaps a combination of all of the supervisory methods would better fulfill the need to cover all aspects of teacher behavior and student learning. As a result of good supervisory models and instruments, teachers rethink what they do. Supervision forces teachers to strive for higher goals, improvement, and excellence. Use of the clinical supervision and systematic supervision models, coupled with the ALT-PE and QMTPS and combined with effective teaching for all involved in the supervision cycles, will assure an increased accountability in the teaching of physical education.

It appears that the Systematic Supervision model is best situated for physical education because it combines the best aspects of all of the supervision models into one package. As with any model or prototype, there are faults, but in the Systematic Supervision model teachers, administrators, and supervisors/observers can make good use of all the available formats. In physical education, there is a need to make sure that the observation tool is as closely related to the desire of the objective set forth in the pre-

conference period as possible. If teachers and coaches will follow the principles behind each model, the quality of physical education instruction can improve.

Recommendations for the Future

Physical education has had a poor reputation for many years. Many teachers of physical education have been guilty of rolling the ball out and letting students play on their own. Physical educators need to become responsible for their actions in the classroom. As professionals, the field of physical education cannot expect to gain respect until the teachers of physical education decide to act as professionals who have well-developed lessons that involve the learner. Physical educators must take their duties in the classroom just as seriously as they do the tutelage of their athletic teams. Likewise administrators must develop tools appropriate for observing and supervising physical education teachers.

In the state of Mississippi, the Mississippi Teacher Assessment Instruments (MTAI) are used to evaluate teachers in classroom practices. All student teachers, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors are required to be trained in the use of this instrument. The cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains are covered in the instrument. Physical educators are also required to obtain an acceptable score on the National Teachers Exam physical education test to obtain a teaching certificate in the state of Mississippi, but physical education is not a high school requirement from the state board of education.

The youth of today are more sedentary than in the past. If administrators do not push for this requirement, then Americans can continue to see their youth deteriorating in health, physical condition, and self-esteem. The universities that train teachers must continue to strive for higher professional standards for their graduates of physical education programs, the public school system must recognize physical education as a needed and important part of the curriculum, and the community must encourage their local schools to offer their children well-planned daily physical education classes.

Implementation of appropriate supervisory activities to assure quality physical education instruction is one positive step in assuring these goals.

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Appendix A

Academic Learning Time-Physical Education

CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS

The ALT-PE interval recording instrument, as currently conceived, is a two-level, hierarchical decision-making system. The first level of the system requires a decision on the context of the setting under observation. The second level involves observations of the individual learner's involvement.

Context Level

The context level describes the context of the setting within which specific individual student behavior is occurring. This level is comprised of two major facets: general content and subject matter content.

General Content

Class time during which students are not intended to be involved in physical education activities.

Transition (T). Time devoted to managerial and organizational activities related to instruction.

Management (M). Time devoted to class business that is unrelated to instructional activity.

Break (B). Time devoted to rest and/or discussion of issues unrelated to subject matter.

Warm-Up (WU). Time devoted to routine execution of physical activities whose purpose is to prepare the individual for engaging in further activity, but not designed to alter the state of the individual on a long-term basis.

Subject Matter Knowledge Content

Class time when the primary focus is intended to be on knowledge related to physical education content.

Technique (TN). Time devoted to transmitting information concerning the physical form (topography) of a motor skill.

Strategy (ST). Time devoted to transmitting information concerning plans of action for performing either individually or as a group.

Rules (R). Time devoted to transmitting information about regulations that govern activity related to the subject matter.

Social Behavior (SB). Time devoted to transmitting information about appropriate and inappropriate ways of behaving within the context of the activity.

Background (BK). Time devoted to transmitting information about a subject matter activity such as its history, traditions, rituals, heroes, heroines, records, importance in later life, or relationship to fitness.

Subject Matter Motor Content

Class time when the primary focus is intended to be on motor involvement in physical education activities.

Skill Practice (P). Time devoted to practice of skills or chains of skills outside the applied context with primary goal of skill development.

Scrimmage/Routine (S). Time devoted to refinement and extension of skills in an applied setting (i.e., in a setting that is like or simulates the setting in which the skill is actually used) and during which there is frequent instruction and feedback for the participants.

Game (G). Time devoted to the application of skills in a game or competitive setting when the participants perform without intervention from the instructor/coach.

Fitness (F). Time devoted to activities whose purpose is to alter the physical state of the individual in terms of strength, cardiovascular endurance, or flexibility.

Learner Involvement Level

The learner involvement level describes how individual learners are involved in the physical education setting described in the context level. The learner involvement level has two facets: not motor engaged and motor engaged.

Not Motor Engaged

Any student involvement other than motor involvement with subject matter-oriented motor activities.

Interim (I). The student is engaged in a noninstructional aspect of an ongoing activity.

Waiting (W). The student has completed a task and is waiting for the next instructions or opportunity to respond.

Off-Task (OF). The student is either not engaged in an activity he or she should be engaged in or is engaged in an activity other than the one he or she should be engaged in.

On-Task (ON). The student is appropriately engaged in carrying out an assigned non-subject-matter task (e.g., management task, transition task, warm-up task).

Cognitive (C). The student is appropriately involved in a cognitive task.

Motor Engaged

Motor involvement with subject matter-oriented motor activities related to the goals of the setting. Thus the categories under the heading not motor engaged may include motor activity, but not subject matter-oriented motor activity.

Motor Appropriate (MA). The student is engaged in a subject matter motor activity in such a way as to produce a high degree of success.

Motor Inappropriate (MI). The student is engaged in a subject matter-oriented activity, but the activity-task is either too difficult for the individual's capabilities or so easy that practicing it could not contribute to lesson goals.

Supporting (MS). The student is engaged in subject matter motor activity whose purpose is to assist others in learning or performing the activity.

RECORDING PROCEDURES

ALT-PE was originally conceptualized as an interval recording system, and, though other methods of data collection have since been developed (Metzler, DePaepe, & Reif, 1985; Siedentop, Tousignant, & Parker, 1982), it is referred to here as an interval system. (Those readers who are interested in alternative data collection methods are directed to the original sources for such information.)

Interval recording is an observation technique by which an individual or group is observed for a specific length of time (i.e., interval) and a decision is made as to what behavior category best represents the behavior of the individual or group during that time. Interval recording is a sampling process in that samples of behavior are collected periodically. As with any sampling process, the more samples that are collected and the more evenly those samples are distributed across the total time, the more representative the sample is to what actually transpired during the total length of the observation session.

The length of the observation interval must be consistent and only as long as needed to accurately code the defined behaviors. The typical interval length for the ALT-PE instrument is 12 seconds. The interval recording technique employed by ALT-PE is an observe/record format: the first 6 seconds of the interval are used to observe and the second 6 seconds to record the observation on the coding sheet. To keep observations in the proper order and time, a preprogrammed audiotape is used to provide observe/record cues.

Figure 17.1 depicts the interval recording portion of the coding sheet for the ALT-PE system. Generally, three target students (one high-, one medium-, and one low-skilled) are observed in sequence for an entire class period. If three students are used for observation, the first row of intervals would be assigned to Student 1, the second row to Student 2, the third row to Student 3, the fourth row to Student 1, and so forth. The actual coding moves down columns before moving across rows. The first observe-record interval would focus on Student 1, the second on Student 2, the third on Student 3, the fourth on Student 1, and so on.

The demographic information portion of the ALT-PE recording sheet is shown in Figure 17.2. This portion of the sheet contains spaces to identify the teacher, date, school, activity, observer, allocated time, and other information that is critical to any particular lesson. On the recording portion of the coding sheet (Figure 17.1) the "C" (context) and "LI" (learner involvement) adjacent to rows of intervals correspond to the decision levels of the instrument. The categories are written at the bottom of the coding sheet with an appropriate symbol for each category.

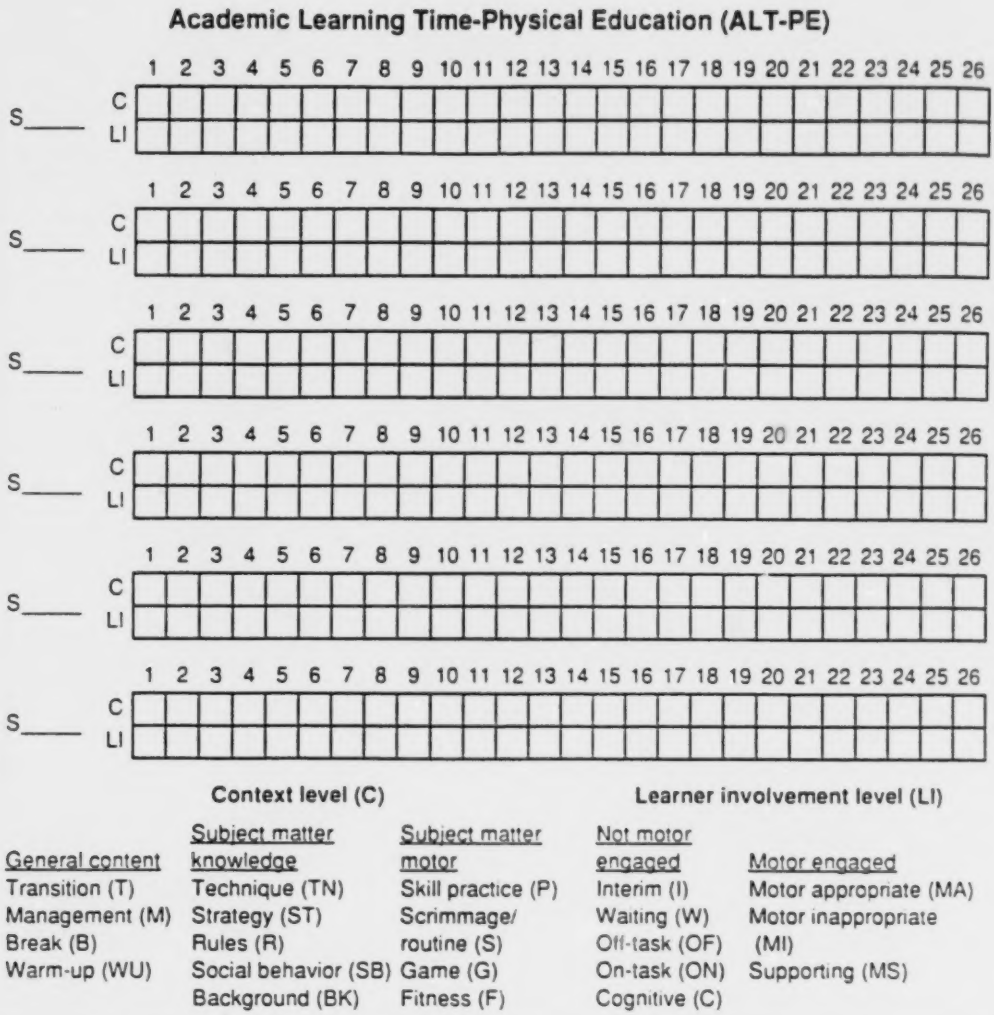

Figure 17.1 Academic Learning Time-Physical Education (ALT-PE) interval recording sheet.

The coding conventions for this two-level decision system are straightforward. For each observation interval, the context is first noted and then the specific student is observed to ascertain the nature of his or her involvement. If a general content or subject matter knowledge category is chosen at the context level, the second-level decision is from categories in the not motor engaged group. If a subject matter motor category is chosen at the context level, the second-level decision uses the entire learner involvement category system. Any observation sample in which motor appropriate is chosen in the second-level decision becomes one unit of ALT-PE. A completed recording sheet is shown in Figure 17.3; ALT-PE intervals are circled.

After making the appropriate decision in each interval, the observer

Academic Learning Time-Physical Education (ALT-PE)

Date: _____ Teacher: _____ School: _____

Class/activity: _____ Observer: _____

Start time: _____ Stop time: _____ Duration: _____ Page ___ of ___

This observation is day _____ of _____ days in this unit.

The teacher allocated _____ minutes of activity time for this lesson.

The source of this allocation information was (teacher, lesson plan).

Observer comments on this class:

Data summary

Total time _____ Allocated practice time _____ ALT-PE _____

Context level data: general content _____

subject matter knowledge _____ subject matter motor _____

Learner involvement data: not motor engaged _____ motor engaged _____

Figure 17.2 Academic Learning Time-Physical Education (ALT-PE) demographic information recording sheet.

writes the appropriate symbol in the appropriate box for each observation interval. If adjacent intervals (across rows) have the same category, this may be represented by a dash (—) rather than repeating the symbol. To review, the ALT-PE system involves a group-focused context decision and an individually focused learner involvement decision for each observation sample. Those observation samples in which a subject matter content motor category is chosen at the context level and motor appropriate is chosen at the learner involvement level are ALT-PE samples. The decision system is summarized below on a step-by-step basis.

Step 1: Context level decision.

What is the context of the class? What is the class doing as a whole?

Choices:	*General Content*	*Knowledge*	*Motor*
	Transition	Technique	Skill practice
	Management	Strategy	Scrimmage
	Break	Rules	Game
	Warm-up	Social behavior	Fitness
		Background	

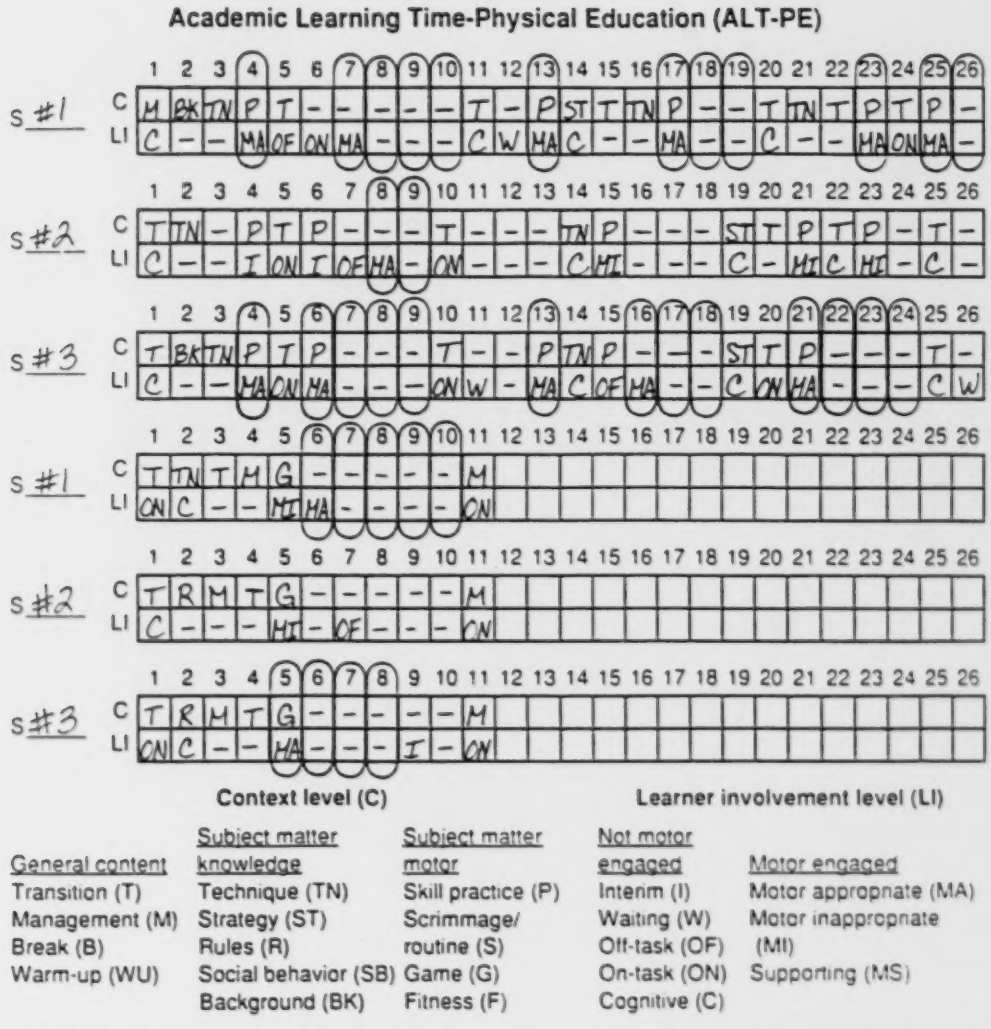

Figure 17.3 Completed Academic Learning Time-Physical Education (ALT-PE) recording sheet.

Step 2: Learner involvement decision.

What is the nature of the individual learner's engagement? What is the individual student doing?

Choices:	*Not Motor Engaged*	*Motor Engaged*
	Interim	Motor appropriate
	Waiting	Motor inappropriate
	Off-task	Supporting
	On-task	
	Cognitive	

Appendix B

Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance

CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS

Type of Task

The type of task concerns the nature of the movement activity that the teacher poses to the students for them to execute. There are five types of tasks.

Informing

A task that names, defines, or describes a skill or movement concept with no focus other than just to do it. It is usually the first task in a sequence of tasks.

Refining

A task that qualitatively seeks to improve motor performance. Most often this type of task focuses on improving the mechanics of the skill or tactical/strategic aspects of play.

Extending

A task that quantitatively changes the original task content by manipulating the level of difficulty of conditions under which the task is performed or that seeks a variety of responses.

Repeat

A simple repetition of the previous task.

Applying

A task that focuses student performance outside the movement itself. It is usually competitive or self-testing in nature.

Task Presentation

Task presentation concerns the delivery of information by the teacher to the students. There are five categories.

Clarity

Teacher's verbal explanation/directions communicate a clear idea of what to do and how to do it. This judgment is confirmed on the basis of student movement responses to the presentation and is relative to the situation.

Yes. Students proceeded to work in a focused way on what the teacher asked them to do.

No. Students exhibited confusion, questions, off-task behavior, or lack of intent to deal with the specifics of the task.

Demonstrate

Modeling desired performance executed by teacher, student(s), and/or visual aids.

Yes. Full model of the desired movement.

Partial. Incomplete model of task performance exhibiting only a portion of the desired movement.

No. No attempt to model the movement task.

Appropriate Number of Cues

The degree to which the teacher presents sufficient information about the movement task without overloading the learner.

Appropriate. Three or fewer new learning cues related to the performance of the movement task.

Inappropriate. Either more than three or no new learning cues related to the performance of the movement.

None Given. No attempt at providing learning cues was made.

Accuracy of Cues

The degree to which the information presented was technically correct and reflected accurate mechanical principles.

Accurate. All information presented was correct.

Inaccurate. One or more incidences of incorrect information.

None Given. No cues given.

Qualitative Cues Provided

Verbal information provided to the learner on the process or mechanics of movement.

Yes. Teacher's explanation or direction included at least one aspect of the process of performance.

No. Teacher's explanation or direction included no information on the process of performance.

Student Responses Appropriate to Task Focus

This category measures the degree to which student responses reflect an intent to perform the task as stated by the teacher.

All

No more than two students viewed on the video screen exhibited inappropriate responses.

Partial

Three or more students exhibited inappropriate behavior on the video screen.

None

No students exhibited appropriate behavior.

Teacher Specific Congruent Feedback

The final category looks at the degree to which teacher feedback during an activity is congruent with (matched to) the focus of the task.

Yes

More than two incidences were evident in which teacher feedback was congruent with the task.

Partial

One or two incidences of congruent feedback were evident.

No

No congruent feedback was given.

RECORDING PROCEDURES

A videotape of a given lesson is used to record QMTPS data. This is for the purpose of assessing the categories of type of task, task presentation, congruent feedback, and student responses. A task is a unit of work given verbally and/or visually by the teacher that focuses students on the intended skill or aspect of that skill to be executed once activity is initiated. The observer stops the videotape after each task is delivered by a teacher

to identify the task and code the section of the instrument on task presentation. He or she stops it again after an activity to code student responses and teacher feedback.

SUMMARIZING AND INTERPRETING THE DATA

Data are recorded in number of occurrences and converted to percentages of the teacher task-student response unit of analysis for each category in each construct (Figure 25.1). There are five categories in the presentation of task area, one for student response appropriate to focus, and one specific congruent feedback area. Each of these seven areas is totaled and converted to percentage. Responses in the most desirable category (scores of 1) are summed and averaged for a total QMTPS score. For example, in Figure 25.1 the teacher gave a total of 12 tasks. After the initial informing task, four refining tasks focused on quality, six tasks focused on extending the skill in difficulty or variety, and one repeat task was given by the teacher.

In the area of task presentation, the teacher was clear in instruction about tasks 6 out of 12 times, or 50% of the time. The teacher gave a full demonstration once, a partial demonstration once, and no demonstration 10 times during task delivery. An appropriate number of cues was given during 2 of the 12 tasks. These cues were accurate 5 out of 12 times, and in 4 out of 12 instances they were qualitative. For the category, student responses appropriate to the task focus, all students responded appropriately 33% of the time; 50% of the time students responded inappropriately. Specific congruent feedback was given by the teacher in 1 of the 12 tasks. The scores in the most desirable categories were 50%, .08%, 16%, 42%, 33%, 33%, and .08%; the mean of these scores, 27, is the total QMTPS score.

Recording the type of tasks a teacher gives creates a picture of the intent to focus on quality movement, to increase or decrease the difficulty or introduce variety through task progressions, or to engage students in self-testing or gaining activities. Although no one best pattern emerges, over a period of time a balance of type of tasks should occur.

Task presentation dimensions reveal the teacher's ability to select accurate qualitative learning cues and to communicate them to the learner. The construct of task presentation is a measure of the teacher's attempt to give the learner an accurate motor plan. Student responses should technically be of higher quality if the teacher has been able to communicate clearly (Werner & Rink, 1986). Task presentation, however, is also an indirect measure of task appropriateness. These categories describe the task-oriented and movement-quality foci of the lesson. Tasks that have no

Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS)

Teacher _____ Coder _____

Focus of lesson _____

Lesson number _____

Task		Presentation of task							
Number	Type of task	Clarity	Demonstration	Number of cues	Accuracy of cues	Qualitative cues	Student response appropriate to focus	Specific congruent feedback	
1	I	2	3	2	1	1	3	3	
2	R	2	3	2	1	2	3	3	
3	E	2	3	2	1	1	2	3	
4	E	1	3	1	1	2	1	2	
5	E	1	3	1	3	2	2	3	
6	R	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	
7	E	1	1	2	2	1	1	3	
8	R	1	3	2	3	2	1	1	
9	E	1	3	2	3	2	3	3	
10	Re	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	
11	R	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	
12	E	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	
13									
14									
15									
Totals		1–6 2–6	1–1 2–1 3–10	1–2 2–10	1–5 2–1 3–6	1–4 2–8	1–4 2–2 3–6	1–1 2–2 3–9	
Percent for each category		1–50 2–50	1–08 2–08 3–84	1–16 2–84	1–42 2–08 3–50	1–33 2–67	1–33 2–16 3–50	1–08 2–16 3–75	
Percent most desirable		50	08	16	42	33	33	08	Total QMTPS 27

Type of task
I–Informing
R–Refine (quality)
E–Extend (variety)
Re–Repeat (repeat same task)
A–Apply self-testing

Clarity
1–Yes
2–No

Demonstration
1–Full
2–Partial
3–None

Number of cues
1–Appropriate
2–Inappropriate
3–None given

Accuracy of cues
1–Accurate
2–Inaccurate
3–None given

Qualitative cues
1–Yes
2–No

Student responses
1–All
2–Partial
3–None

Specific congruent feedback
1–Yes
2–Partial
3–No

Figure 25.1 Qualitative Measures of Teaching Performance Scale (QMTPS) recording sheet.